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ABSTRACT

Six articles are presented in this special interest journal focusing on two-year college reading instruction. Mindy E Brooks discusses teaching and learning styles in terms of individual approaches to gathering and evaluating data. W. E. Jackson and Twalah Jackson discuss changes in the educational environment as related to the concept of "getting back to basics." In another article, Kathy Carpenter describes a successful vocabulary expansion program using word games. Barbara Crist and William Anderson present a study which demonstrates that when dealing with students with lower than average verbal skills, the vocabulary subscore of the SAT is more predictive of grade point average than the comprehension subscore for first semester freshmen. Glenda Hammond and Dianne McKay describe a skills instruction component of a tutor training program and discuss a management approach which the tutor can employ to increase the value of the tutoring session. In a final paper, Edward J. Dwyer reviews a system to improve reading comprehension through prereading of questions. (MB)

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EDITORIAL

The mystical Annual International Reading Association Convention is upon us again. For one, I am glad to see that some members of SIG will participate in the program. I wish them success.

After reviewing the 1979 Convention Programs that may be of special interest to two-year college teachers of reading, it appears that a good number of the program participants are not now members of SIG. I would like to urge S.I.G. officers and members to invite these program participants to join S.I.G. I believe these potential members could contribute to our organization.

Clayton Pinette
Co-Editor
Forum for Reading

NEBRASKA EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION
COUNCIL FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

Mindy Brooks

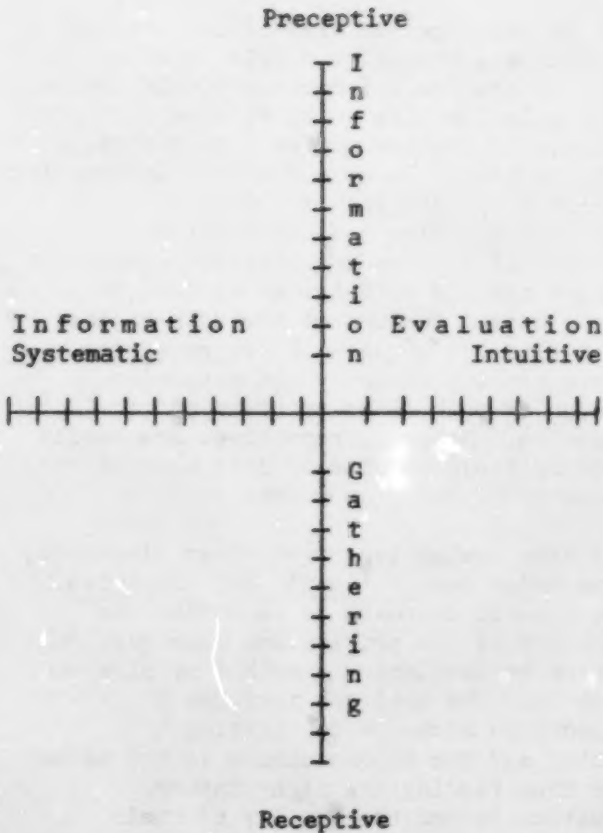
The NECTHE Consortium is a group of eleven small public and private colleges in the State of Nebraska. Four years ago these colleges established Teaching Learning Centers which include programs for both student and faculty development. The reason for combining student and faculty development programs is to help students and their teachers see that teaching and learning problems are often a shared responsibility and to encourage communication. Each Teaching Learning Center provides specific services to students and to teachers. Cognitive style information is a mutual benefit service because it focuses on the common goal of improving student achievement.

Individual teaching and learning styles have a direct impact on the quality of a college education. Style influences students' choice of major and career, interpersonal behavior and everyone's value judgments relative to intelligence and competence. Furthermore, as this aspect of human behavior is more fully understood, we may be approaching a time when, beyond a few common and justifiable criteria, we will talk less about good and bad teachers and students. Instead, we will recognize that some teachers and students can be good or bad for one another depending on their understanding of teaching and learning styles.

Cognitive styles can be defined as our characteristic, spontaneous ways of gathering and processing information. Cognitive style theory suggests that each individual selects and uses only a part of the immense quantity of data which bombards us. Another element of the definition is that it refers to process not content and indicates how people deal with a problem; not how much they know about it. Cognitive styles, in contrast to abilities, are neutral. No style is always better than another; the value depends upon the context and nature of the problem to be solved. For every advantage one style has in a particular situation, there are disadvantages in another.

The implications of the theory for teaching and learning are promising, although applications and strategies are still to be developed and tested. Research psychologists, studying individual differences in human perception, have identified more than a dozen cognitive dimensions with the most pervasive called styles. This discussion describes one style model which suggests applications for adult students and faculty.

The Information Processing Model, developed by James McKenney and his associates at the Harvard Business School, employs two dimensions: Information gathering and information evaluation. Under each dimension there are two modes of dealing with information:



Information gathering modes are called preceptive and receptive. People who are preceptive take in new information by classifying it under concepts or precepts they already hold. They automatically look for relationships between what they already know and the new information they hear so that

it can be cataloged or classified. At the other extreme, receptive people focus on the details of the new information itself rather than on relationships or categories. Advantages of the preceptive mode are the ability to handle large amounts of information and skill at organizing it. However, preceptives may miss new information altogether if it does not fit into a category they have already established or tend to ignore a unique feature of the data so that it will fit. Advantages of the receptive mode are extreme accuracy and extensive knowledge of each discrete piece of information. However, receptives are easily glutted by large amounts of data because they are slow to classify or relate it.

On the data evaluation or strategy dimension, the two modes are systematic and intuitive. The systematic approach is to define the constraints of the problem and then give full attention to developing a method or plan for solving it. The approach includes a conscientious step-by-step testing of variables and the major concern is the method rather than finding the right answer. Systematics defend the quality of their solution by pointing to the excellent method they have used to arrive at it. In contrast, intuitives focus on defining and redefining the problem not the constraints. They use a trial and error method and rely on un verbalized clues and hunches. They jump back and forth from one step to another and defend their solution because it solves the problem so well. They are likely to re-invent the wheel on occasion but excel at

working with unstructured, unique, and complex problems. Systematics, on the other hand, work well when a single procedure is appropriate for successive or recurring problems. Intuitives usually cannot tell you how they arrived at a solution and are apt to be impatient if asked. Systematics know where they are at all times, but the solution they are working toward may or may not be a useful one.

Communication problems arise easily between people with opposite styles. The preceptive must have a category or way to classify information before accepting it while a receptive wants accurate details and worries about classification later if at all.

Without an understanding of the different styles of problem solving, it is easy to see why equally intelligent people, on occasion, describe each other as "slow," "stupid," "rigid," "nit-picking" or worse. In the classroom, the situation can be critical. Research has established that we tend to communicate most easily with people whose styles are similar to our own and, without objective evidence, to consider these people more intelligent than those whose styles differ from our own. Teachers may unconsciously punish students with differing styles and reward those who share their own.

Cognitive style information does not provide pat solutions to common teaching and learning problems. Its usefulness at this point lies in individual applications. Our approach through the Teaching Learning Centers is to hold one day workshops for

faculty which include the opportunity for them to determine their own styles. We suggest that if they see value in the theory, they study cognitive style materials in greater depth and analyze the influence of their own style on their teaching procedures. The next step can be to share the information with their students and help them determine their own styles and the implications. Another use is for instructors to develop new strategies based on knowledge of their own style, the content they teach and their own students.

Joe Taylor, an English Instructor at North County Community College, conducted a cognitive style research project in 1975-76. One of his findings was that teachers can learn to predict their students' styles rather accurately from information other than tests and that students, given information and definitions, are pretty good at predicting their own. (Project Priority: Occupational Emphasis, Kay Martens, Editor, August, 1976, p. 40-41)* Taylor's experiment involved the systematic-intuitive dimension and one purpose was to determine whether or not an intuitive composition instructor can develop systematic strategies for systematic students. In answering this question, Taylor found that talking in class with the systematic students about their strategies for writing topics which can be attacked systematically not only

*Available through: Two-Year College Development Center, State University of New York at Albany, 135 Western Ave., Draper Hall, Suite 409, Albany, New York 12222.

appealed to them but also helped the intuitive students learn how their opposites approach outlining and organization. (Strong intuitives are highly resistant to outlining and generally write an outline, if forced to, after finishing their paper.) Taylor concluded that intuitive instructors can develop systematic strategies for systematic students. His suggestions for teachers is that once you know who the systematic students are, ask for their ideas about how to approach a given problem and listen to what they say.

Beyond the improvement in communication between teachers and students, knowledge of cognitive styles enables teachers to examine instructional methods for a new perspective and to employ teaching strategies which neither subtly punish nor reward without justification. Style sensitive teaching also encourages changes in course design and testing procedures which permit students to capitalize on their strengths as well as to learn strategies for remedying weaknesses. Students appreciate the insights they gain into their own thought processes and are in a position to make more informed decisions about courses and how to study for them. Cognitive styles are neutral so students do not have to label themselves negatively when they realize that different course contents require learning strategies different from their preferred or typical approach. They do need help in learning different strategies and in taking advantage of all available options.

In conclusion, strength of style is significant in how individuals react toward others and in problem solving or decision

making situations. Further, every person does not have a preferred style. However, for teachers and students who do, the information and strategies revealed offer an important step toward individualizing instruction and helping students develop to their greatest potential

BACK TO BASICS

W. E. Jackson
Twalah Jackson
Tarrant County
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Quite often we hear someone remarking about today's education by saying, "Let's get back to the basics.!" We're really not sure what they mean, and we're really not sure they know themselves what they mean. We assume that what is wanted is for each teacher to take his or her grade-level books and teach the kids to read, write, and work math well enough to go to the next grade-level books by the end of the year. If this is basics, we have this in most of our schools right now. Just check almost any classroom anywhere. The children in any given grade are trying to read from the same book, work the same arithmetic problems, spell the same words, doing drills for the same length of time whether it's needed or not.

There is at least one thing wrong with this method—children just don't all learn at the

same rate, so this approach bores some and frustrates others. Another thing that might be mentioned is that we as a society connect failure with the lack of academic achievement at a given age or grade. Many parents demand that their children not fail at any level regardless of interests and/or capabilities. This demand may not be best for the child as the skills he needs may not be sufficiently learned to do well in the next grade.

There was a time not too long ago when the children of the community gathered together in the one-room school house for instruction by the schoolmaster. Each child was considered an individual. His skills achievement was ascertained, and he was given instruction at that level. There may have been a number of students in the class, none of whom were functioning at the same level. The instructor presented the lessons from the several levels of reading, spelling and math books. Skills were being developed as each was capable of learning--each learned at his own rate. Is this the era to which people refer when they say "back to basics"?

A few years later as the population became more concentrated, and the one-teacher school gave way to the several-teacher school, someone said, "Let's divide the students in two rooms, and you take the high level skills, and I'll take the lower level skills." Thus, grade levels were born. Children were still being taught the skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic by a system of sequential development.

Other changes came to pass--chairs were nailed down and faced the same way, teachers narrowed the levels of skills they taught until they were teaching to the "average" student only. Those who had difficulty in learning often dropped out of school because of embarrassment and/or harassment by the teacher. In those days, however, it didn't matter, because they could often go back to work on the farm or find some way of making a living.

Then things began to get tough--not everyone could get a job. The technological development demanded that more people be educated before they could attain work. Educators tried to get all of the slow-learners and fast-learners and everybody back in school and off the streets. This caused a real problem because the teachers had decided they were going to stay with their "basics," but they failed to see that there was a bunch of kids that couldn't learn as fast as teachers could present the material. As it turned out, about half of the kids were doing pretty well, but the other half were developing frustration, anxieties, and a lot of other problems. The central problem was and is that parents and teachers just didn't and don't understand what was causing so many children not to learn.

There is a ray of hope, however, because there are a few parents and people in education who are working to personalize and humanize the educational program. They recognize that each child has different interests and capabilities. Each child learns at varying rates and learns some subjects

better than others.

One may nail the chairs down or place tablet-arm chairs in perfect rows or knock out walls for the "open-concept," but the physical arrangement appears to have very little effect on the truly "Master teacher." Teachers share as many different opinions about physical arrangement as they do about the qualities of homes and cars. But a Master teacher is able to teach regardless of physical arrangement. Unfortunately, it appears that many people are more concerned about physical arrangement than about the student. The Master teacher is able to transform the worst physical arrangement into a haven for learning. The Master teacher sets the stage for learning, and students will love the arrangement whatever it may be!

We really don't think that we have gotten away from teaching the basics. Rather our methods and expectations are unrealistic. We, personally, think the one-room school teaching was more realistic, so we agree: let's get "back to basics," defining "back to basics" in a way that, apparently, few actually understand.

EXPANDING VOCABULARY
AT THE COLLEGE LEVEL

Kathy Carpenter
Kearney State College

"There's nothing drier than teaching vocabulary" is a common statement made by many instructors working in College Learning Assistance Centers, and "There's nothing duller than learning it" is the universal student response. Yet, there is a way to make both aspects of it interesting, rewarding and fun: motivate the student through games, competition and rewards.

College classes don't necessarily have to be serious lecture-type affairs to insure student learning. The Vocabulary Expansion modules that are described in this paper, for example, foster student learning in an informal and enjoyable manner. In fact, these vocabulary modules were formulated on the premise that people of all ages like to play games and that this fondness for games can be used to increase motivation for learning.

The Vocabulary Expansion modules are designed for two class periods a week for four weeks. During the first class meeting, 2 pretests (one content and one standardized) are administered and students are familiarized with the class format. Half of each succeeding class is spent on learning helpful vocabulary techniques (the meanings of common prefixes, suffixes, and root words, utilizing

context clues, and perusal of confusing words.) The last half of each class is spent playing a game with the 100-150 college-level words that were assigned at the previous class meeting. Learning the definitions for that many difficult words every few days is a rather large assignment, but students rarely complain. Why? Because while they're learning these words, they're having fun. Following are descriptions of the games used in the modules to promote vocabulary growth.

Wheel Games

Students are divided into teams of 4 to 6 students. Each team is given a wheel (or circle) divided like a pie into eight equal portions and numbered 1 through 8. Below the circle are eight numbered definitions. The teams must place the word in section #1 which is described in definition #1, and so forth until the wheel is full. The first team wins, and each member gets to select a reward, such as a piece of candy or gum. The instructor must have at least 4 of these wheel games available with sufficient copies of each, depending upon the number of students in the class.

Charades

Divide the class into 2 teams. Each person has to act out a word in front of his team. (Ex: for the word "maudlin" the person may act like she is crying, can signal that the word has 2 syllables by holding up two fingers, or utilize any other techniques available in the regular Charades game.) The instructor times each student, and adds up the total time

for each team. The side with the lowest total is the winner.

WORDO

This game is similar to Bingo. The instructor passes out to each student, a WORDO Card which has 30 definitions on it. The students also take tokens to cover up their definitions as the words are drawn. The instructor then draws a word, informs them where the definition is located(ex. "Under the W"), says the word and uses it in a sentence. He then places the word on his master sheet. He keeps drawing words until someone yells "WORDO", checks the definitions covered on the card against the master sheet, and rewards the winner. When everyone has cleared his cards, he begins the game again.

Jeopardy Game

Since many students have seen this game on television, they will generally participate enthusiastically. A Jeopardy sheet is handed to each student which has 6 columns down and six across. The students are told to place a category in each of the top squares across the page. For example, in one game we use 1) Women, 2) Fellowmen, 3) Phobias and Manias, 4) Emotional or Mental Problems, 5) Feelings, and 6) Potpourri because there are at least 5 words assigned that fit under each of the categories. Perpendicularly, starting at the top, the levels under each category are worth 10, 20, 30, 40, and 50 points for 900 possible points. The class is divided into 2 teams and 1 person on each team is designated to be a scorekeeper. Alternating

between teams, each person is allowed to ask for a square (ex. 10 under Women). The teacher gives the definition (ex: a flirt) and the student must answer with "What is _____" and give the word, (in this instance "What is a coquette?"). A student cannot call for 20 under a category until 10 has been answered in that category. If the student answers correctly, his team gets the points. If he cannot answer, the person whose turn it is on the opposing team can call for the same square or choose another one. The game is continued until all squares have been identified. Team points are totaled and the winning team members receive a prize.

Concentration Game

Thirty-six numbered cards are laid out on a large table with numbers up and in order--six across in rows, six down. The class is divided into two teams and members are grouped around a table so that all students can see the cards. "Concentration" is played just as it is played on television. The first student calls 2 numbers and the instructor turns them over. If the words on the turned cards match, the student has to be able to give the definition of the word before the 2 cards can be taken off the table and given to his team. If he can't define the word, the cards are turned over again. The next person on the opposing team then gets a chance to call 2 numbers and match the words. If the words don't match, the cards are turned over, and the person next in line on the other team gets a turn. Team members can help each other in calling numbers but not in giving definitions.

for the words. The team with the most cards at the end wins the game.

Password Game

Students are divided into pairs with each pair being a team. One person in each pair has a Password holder with a card in it, and all the holders contain identical cards. The first person gives a one-word clue to his partner. If the partner can say the word, the team gets 10 points, and so on around the room until the word is identified. Then the cards are passed, the other person on each team pulls the card up to the next word, and the game continues. When the 6 words on that card have been identified, the pair with the most points gets a reward. A new set of cards is inserted into the password folders, and another round is played.

Additional games, such as crossword puzzles to be filled in as a team exercise, can be played. Games such as the preceding have long been effectively used on the elementary level. Our experience at Kearney State College has indicated that such games should not be discarded for students on higher levels. Consequently, we have offered 20 Vocabulary Expansion modules during the last 4 semesters. Every class has been filled to over-flowing and there were many students who were turned away.

Incorporating these games into our Vocabulary classes initially involved several hours of preparation. "Wordo" cards were made, a Concentration set created, Password folders

and cards assembled; however, once the materials were ready, we have been able to use them over and over. Wheel games, Jeopardy sheets and crossword puzzles can be quickly xeroxed as needed.

Our formal evaluation of the Vocabulary Expansion Modules has been gratifying. Standardized posttest results have been significant at the .001 level when compared to the pretests: in addition, content posttests covering over 1,000 words have consistently been passed by most students at the 80% level. Students also fill out a module evaluation form, and they have consistently rated the vocabulary classes as excellent.

Although the planning and preparation involved in offering the class in this format were extensive, the results have been worth the effort. We now have tangible evidence that vocabulary teaching and learning can be an enjoyable experience for both teachers and students.

WORD YOUR WAY THROUGH COLLEGE

Barbara Crist
William Anderson
Shippensburg State
College

"If you were clever enough to word yourself in--," which is the kind of advice an English teacher, a reading teacher, or for that matter, any content area professor might share with a conscientious and concerned freshman.

For the last few years school administrators, English departments, parents, the students themselves, not to mention the American public, have all been first interested, then troubled, and now appalled at the dramatic drop in the Verbal SAT's. (The Math portion of the SAT has remained relatively stable.) According to the CEEB, the latest figures show a 35 point decline in the verbal score in ten years. Theories have been hypothesized to account for the declining verbal scores, many that suggest the lower scores are due to the larger and more diverse student body now taking the tests as compared to former years.

Now, however, for those of us in the make-do-millieu -- the college classroom -- something new has surfaced. In 1974 the Verbal SAT itself began to be reported in subscores: a score for vocabulary and one for reading comprehension. 85 questions make up the verbal section, 45 vocabulary items and 40 comprehension items. Already, word

knowledge appears weighted slightly higher than comprehension as far as college admission is concerned when the SAT is used as one of the determiners.

At Shippensburg State College an investigation was conducted with entering freshmen in the fall of 1976. Since we were working with a group of fifty non-traditional students who entered college under a special program, we limited our study to students with vocabulary and comprehension subscores of below 46. However, as we wished to include regular admittees in our population, we decided to select fifty additional students who were matched by sex and SAT-verbal scores. (It would have been impossible to find matches in total SAT scores because of separate admissions policies). We also recorded SAT-mathematical scores on all one hundred. For a variety of reasons, four of the students left school before the end of the first semester and were dropped from the study along with their matches, leaving us with 92 students in our sample.

The mean vocabulary score for the sample group was 37.61 and the mean comprehension score was 36.81. A mean GPA of 2.11 was attained at the end of Semester I.

Using simple correlation for our total population of 92 students, the SAT-vocabulary subscore appeared to correlate more significantly with GPA than the SAT-comprehension and more than a host of other variables frequently considered to be predictive, including: sex, race, and

SAT-mathematical. (See Table). In addition, when a linear regression formula was used to determine predictors of GPA, The Verbal-vocabulary seemed to be somewhat stronger than Verbal-comprehension after all other variables have been accounted for, i.e., attendance, SAT-mathematical, sex, and race (Specific statistics are not included here but are available upon request).

We conclude, then, that when dealing with students who have lower than average verbal skills, that the vocabulary subscore is more predictive than the comprehension subscore as a GPA predictor for first semester freshmen. There are obvious limitations in a study of this type due to differences in courses taken, professors, etc. With the sample size used, however, such differences can be assumed to be randomly distributed.

Implications of the study include:

1. College professors in all disciplines need to teach freshmen more words, 2. English courses in both high school and college should emphasize vocabulary, at least as much as other language arts skills, 3. High school teachers in all content areas should stress a wide variety of vocabulary-building techniques.

As a precautionary note, we, as a couple of word buffs, would like to emphasize the positive, fun side of vocabulary building. Forget the tedious lists and dictionary drills. Accent content, word games, previewing for vocabulary, and etymology. We like to set aside one day, a fun day,

for WORDS. It's hard to find a student who can't be beguiled to "Word His Way Through College -- or Into It."

REFERENCE

College Entrance Examination Board. National Report, College-Bound Seniors, 1975-76, p. 7.

Table
Correlations with G.P.A.

Variable	r	p.
Race	.20	n.s
Sex	.26	.05
SAT - V (Vocab)	.48	.001
SAT - V (Comp)	.41	.001
SAT - M	.43	.001

PEER TEACHING:
A STUDY SKILLS APPROACH

Glenda Hammond
Dianne McKay
Michigan State University

Current literature on peer tutoring generally describes specific tutoring programs. The programs usually stress building rapport in the tutor/tutee relationship, but the programs do not suggest actual teaching strategies and management techniques which the tutor must also possess. However, reviews of articles concerned with study strategies based on the underlying structure of certain disciplines - science, math, social science and literature - do offer useful and sound methodology. Since eventual tutee independence should be the goal of any tutoring program, these strategies should be taught. Unfortunately, such articles are written for teachers so they are not usually read by tutors.

From our review of the literature, we have been unable to find a tutoring program which addresses both the concerns of affective development and teaching strategies. However, integration of these two components in every tutor training program is necessary for helping tutees learn aystematic skills leading to independent learning. Therefore, the purposes of this paper are: 1) to briefly describe the skills instruction component of a tutor training program; and 2) to discuss a management approach which the tutor can employ to increase the value of the tutoring session.

WORKSHOP RATIONALE

Very often tutor workshops are conducted as though the tutor is a professional. It is assumed that the peer tutor, having established rapport with his students, will know exactly how to assist these students in the tutoring session. This, generally, is not the case because tutors are students themselves. Therefore, the workshop should have relevance for the participants as tutors and as students of tutoring.

From past experience, we have found that in conducting tutor workshops it is essential to consider the peer tutor as a student first and a tutor second. This is vital if the workshop is to communicate the importance of using various strategies for effective tutoring. The workshop leader teaches the case study skills to the tutor who often knows the material but does not know how he/she learned it themselves. Without this knowledge of basic study skills the tutor's assistance to the tutee is limited. For example, the tutor may be able to relate his approach to only one particular assignment in psychology rather than being able to relate strategies useful in the preparation of all assignments. Such considerations were primary factors in planning the tutor workshop for Michigan State University's Office of Supportive Services which resulted in the following format.

TUTOR INVOLVEMENT

To encourage the involvement of the tutors,

the session started with a question period in which the workshop leaders asked the tutors to recall some typical concerns expressed by their tutees. These concerns were then written on the board and categorized under strategy areas such as "Scheduling Time," or "Notetaking." For instance, one concern expressed by a student was, "How can I get all my studying done on time when I have so much to do?" This concern was classified as a problem relating to following a study schedule. The advantage of having tutors generate the list themselves was the insurance that the workshop would be directly related to tutor concerns. This list (found in Appendix A) provided the basis for our discussion on the use of skills strategies to alleviate academic difficulties.

SKILLS STRATEGIES FOR THE TUTOR AS A STUDENT

The list of concerns discussed above indicated problem areas not only for the tutees but for the tutors as well. Some tutors sought assistance from us for courses in which they were not strong, which gave the workshop leaders an opportunity to make the point that the best way to communicate the effectiveness of various skill strategies is to be personally convinced of their value. The various study strategies prepared by the workshop leaders included methods for:

1. Scheduling time effectively
2. Improving concentration
3. Developing lecture notetaking strategies

4. Developing test-taking strategies
5. Developing various study techniques.

Tutors then worked through a study skills packet themselves so that they would be able to teach them to a tutee.

SQ3R AS A MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUE

The second component of the workshop dealt with tutor questions about managing and organizing their tutoring sessions to insure maximum benefit to the student. After hearing tutors voice concerns over how to actually manage the tutoring session, it became apparent that there was a need to help them establish realistic expectations of their tutees. The ensuing discussion, therefore, centered on three basic concepts:

- 1) The tutor can expect the tutee to expend the effort necessary to be prepared for a session.
- 2) Tutee preparation involves following the instructions of the peer tutor for the next session.
- 3) The tutor can expect regular attendance at scheduled sessions to be consistent.

With the above concepts as goals, there needs to be a method of implementation which enables the tutor to give worthwhile instructions to be followed for the next session, and which encourages regular attendance.

One management technique suited to accomplish these goals is the study skill known as SQ3R. SQ3R (Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review) and its numerous variations have been shown repeatedly to be the most effective means of textbook study and retention. How does SQ3R constitute a management technique? This question can best be answered through a series of concerns generated by the tutors at the workshop:

1. HOW DO I START WHEN A STUDENT FIRST COMES TO ME AND SAYS HE DOESN'T UNDERSTAND THE SUBJECT AND DOESN'T KNOW WHY?

Begin by asking general questions about what aspect of the material causes the most difficulty, whether it be textbook reading, understanding lectures, problem solving, etc. When the problem is narrowed down, it is often a problem concerned with understanding and retaining text material. When this is the case, the student is asked to describe her or his current study technique. At this point, an explanation of the SQ3R as a study technique can be provided.

2. HOW DO I MAKE SURE MY TUTEES COME PREPARED?

If the tutor requires that SQ3R be used as a study technique in preparation for a session, the student will have put forth some effort in reading the assignment in advance. The student will come to the session equipped to answer questions over the text material; for those questions the student cannot answer, help can be provided. This results in an

efficient use of tutoring time. Having students actively prepare for a session increases their learning.

3. I HAVE TRIED SQ3R AND IT WORKS FOR ME AS A STUDENT, BUT I THINK MY TUTEES WOULD THINK IT IS TOO TIME CONSUMING.

Like any change in behavior, learning a new skill takes repetition and a feeling of success. The fact that the tutor sees the value in SQ3R will be a large factor in "selling" it to a student. It does seem time consuming at first, but over a period of time, perhaps six tutoring sessions, the method may become a habit. Generally, rewards of improved grades, efficient test review sessions, and less test anxiety will have also occurred to provide reinforcement to use the SQ3R system. For the student who is adamantly opposed to using SQ3R, the experienced tutor can assist the tutee to modify the method. For example the following variations can be employed:

1. General questions used to guide a broader summary of material
2. General questions used to guide a chapter outline
3. General questions to be answered by the main idea of the first paragraph in a section.
4. SOMETIMES MY STUDENTS WILL MISS SEVERAL TUTORING SESSIONS ONLY TO SHOW UP THE NIGHT BEFORE THE TEST FOR INSTANT KNOWLEDGE.

This situation can be avoided by making expectations known about preparation in advance and regular attendance. The tutor does not have to see a student under these circumstances if he has made the ground rules clear. Should the tutor choose to see the student, he should emphasize that it is impossible to instill "instant" knowledge or understanding at such a late date, and not to expect great success on an exam. Then he can proceed with whatever survival strategies seem appropriate.

6. SOME OF MY STUDENTS DON'T MAKE PROGRESS
EVEN THOUGH I EXPLAIN EVERYTHING AGAIN
AND AGAIN. WHY IS THIS?

One of the long range goals of any tutoring program should be to assist students to become independent students. Unfortunately, some tutors may unconsciously foster dependence because of their inability to teach the tutee how to study independently. Stressing the SQ3R systematic approach, however, helps to alleviate this problem by teaching the student a skill that, once mastered, can be used independently.

7. HOW DO I RESIST THE INCLINATION TO GO
AHEAD AND DO THE ASSIGNMENT FOR THE STUDENT?

This situation often arises from the tutor's frustration when at a loss for anything better to do or to suggest. Having the student prepare by using SQ3R gives a different tone to the session. The tutor can now direct discussion specifically to elements of the assignment causing difficulty, rather than doing the whole assignment for the student.

CONCLUSION

The concerns of the peer tutors discussed above are most likely the concerns of peer tutors everywhere. The answer to these concerns, we must realize, cannot be found solely in the enhancement of the interpersonal relationship between the tutor and the tutee. We must go one step further to insure that this transient relationship will produce an independent tutee who will learn some sound strategies for and develop a positive attitude toward study. Emphasizing SQ3R as a management technique for tutoring works well because it is a comprehensive study method which solves most problems associated with studying, or, at the very least, it helps to create structure in which the well-trained peer tutor can begin to help solve these problems.

Appendix A

STATEMENTS INDICATIVE OF VARIOUS ACADEMIC DIFFICULTIES

Scheduling Time

1. My teachers give me so much to do, they must think their class is my only class.
2. How can I get all my studying done on time when I am involved in so many activities?
3. I never know where to start when I sit down to study because I have so much to do.

Notetaking

1. In lecture, I try to write down everything the professor says, but I can't can't get it all down.
2. I take a lot of notes, but it seems what I think is important to take down is not what is on the tests.

Study Skills

1. I want to learn to read my textbooks faster.

Appendix A (Cont')

2. I read my material but I don't know what I read.
3. I hate to read this material because there is so much to read and I don't know what to look for.

Test-Taking

1. I memorized my notes, but I still did terrible on the tests.
2. My roommate and I both took the essay exam. We covered the same material in our papers and he got a 3.5 and I got a 2.0.
3. I studied all night and still did poorly on the test.

Concentration

1. I have good intentions of studying but when I sit down I can't concentrate.
2. I allow 5 hours at a time for studying. but I lose concentration after 2 hours and can't finish my assignments.

IMPROVING READING COMPREHENSION
THROUGH PREREADING OF QUESTIONS

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Teachers of reading have been advised to help students gain information from material they read through implementation of study strategies designed to provide guideposts throughout their reading. These guideposts are intended to provide a framework upon which to more firmly establish comprehension. The general idea relative to providing such comprehension aids has gained considerable impetus since Ausubel's (1960) article in which he described such aids as "advance organizers". Ausubel (1968) described advance organizers as learning aids which "draw upon and mobilize whatever anchoring concepts are already established in the learners cognitive structure." Thus, advance organizers can be used to aid reading comprehension. Rothkopf (1965) concluded that new learning through reading could be generated through the asking of meaningful questions which created a test like situation "which provides a state of affairs which maintains eye movements in reading at an efficient level." Relative to information gain, Rothkopf coined the term "mathemagenic behavior" from the Greek roots mathema (that which is learned) and gignesthia (to be born). Rothkopf suggested that "answering questions while reading may result in improved post-reading, recalled because: (a) the questions are in themselves instructive, and (b) they strengthen mathemagenic behaviors

that generally facilitate learning." Other researchers (Weintraub, et. al., 1976-1977) also suggest that advance organizers in a wide variety of forms tend to promote reading comprehension. More specifically, in a study involving 80 students at the University of Indiana, Mayer (1975) concluded that "questions serve as cues concerning the goals of instruction."

Believing that advance organizers can indeed aid comprehension, the following system for providing such aids in reading instruction is suggested:

1. Assign a reading selection that is on the student's instructional level; comprehension and vocabulary questions should be answered immediately after reading.
2. The student uses two separate answer sheets with numbered columns of boxes for recording responses. Each numbered column has a corresponding selection in the text. On one answer sheet, either every odd or every even number is obscured, thus leaving every other column with a number at the top. The other sheet is left intact. Boxes at the top of each column are for the date and, for the reading rate. Reading rate is determined in words read per minute and/or time to complete the entire activity. See Figure 1.

DATE							
SELECTION	1		3		5		
RATE							
1							
2							
10							
SCORE							
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	

Figure 1. Sample student response sheet.

3. On the sheet with the set of obscured numbers, the student uses each numbered column for the selection with the same number in the text while the column adjacent to it is used later for the same exercise. In the numbered column, students attempt to answer the questions before reading the selection. Prereading the questions alerts the readers to what is coming in the selection. In this way, the questions serve as advance organizers.
4. The other column on the response sheet is used for answering the same set of questions after the selection has been read. While attempting to answer the questions after reading, the students are advised to "never look back" at the selection in order to confirm answers. This procedure is followed to 1) determine how much comprehension has occurred through reading the selection, 2) establish more firmly a reliance on initial reading of information, and 3) approximate more closely a course study session wherein students would not normally reread selections to find the answers to questions. Later, responses in each column (pre and post) are checked and the percent correct is recorded. The student then examines the text to find the correct answer to those responses marked as incorrect.
5. The second answer sheet is used by the student to record answers for exercises (either odd or even numbered) that were omitted on the first answer sheet. This time, however, the questions are

encountered only after a selection has been read. As above, students are advised to "never look back" once the material has been read.

The preceding system for including advance organizers in reading instruction provides for comparison of results when students preread questions and when they do not. Some students will perform in a superior manner when responding to questions that they have previously attempted before reading. Such students can be expected to gradually improve in reading comprehension of the selections on which they do not encounter the questions before reading as well. The basic reason for this appears to be that an awareness factor [advance organizers] relevant to reading for specific information can be generated through prereading of questions. For many students, this awareness factor can be expected to transfer and eventually becomes part of their general reading behavior.

The record sheets provide concrete comparative data while feedback from students and observational input can also be used to evaluate the effectiveness of the system that has been described, as well as the appropriateness of materials used; that is, students who answer a relatively high proportion of questions before reading selections are probably working with material that is too easy.

Materials used must 1) be easy enough so that students do not encounter excessive word recognition difficulty; 2) provide for evaluation of comprehension relative to such areas as: a) recall of information,

b) inference, c) main ideas, and 3) gradually increase in difficulty as proficiency is demonstrated so that students will eventually be working on a reading level that is to bring deficient students up to a level in which they practice readings which approximately corresponds to that of their textbooks.

Use of the system of advance organizers that has been described can be carried out by students in an independent lab situation or during home study in conjunction with a reading improvement course.

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